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ABSTRACT

The first step in a long-term research effort to investigate the relationship between knowledge and its use in the practice of leadership is described in this paper. Detailed interviews with a random sample of 37 senior West Point cadets to were conducted investigate the identification and causal representation of human performance problem situations. Leadership problems were categorized and then the relevant knowledge from psychology, sociology, and organizational behavior was developed into a content model, called a Model of Organizational Leadership (MOL). Two questions were addressed. First, what situations do cadets identify as a leadership problem? Second, what do cadets regard as the relevant causal features of the leadership problem situation, and how do they organize these to structure an explanation of the problem? The results are presented in answer to these two questions. All of the problems reported involved human performance; no technical problems requiring specific task competence were reported. There was a general lack of complexity in the causal structures used to represent each of these problems. Some speculations about the reasons for this are included, as well as suggestions to improve the situation. Appended are references and tables, charts, and graphs detailing the study. (LMS)

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Identification and Representation of Leadership Problems

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Running Head: LEADERSHIP PROBLEMS

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Abstract

This study represents the first step in a long-term research effort to investigate the relationship between knowledge and its use in the practice of leadership. We conducted detailed structured interviews with a stratified random sample of thirty-seven senior West Point cadets in order to investigate the identification and causal representation of human performance problem situations. Using a scheme derived from studies by Wagner and Sternberg (1985) on managerial tacit knowledge, we categorized leadership problems and analyzed them for content and complexity. The results have implications for both the design and the conduct of leadership development programs.

Identification and Representation of Leadership Problems

Leadership development has received renewed attention in undergraduate and professional education, business, and industry (Spitzberg, 1986; Gardner, 1987). So too, the military has strengthened its longstanding commitment to leadership development in light of emerging thinking about future warfare.

In the Army, leadership development has become the explicit focus of precommissioning programs. Technical knowledge, once the sine qua non of precommissioning education, is now combined with an understanding of human behavior to form the conceptual foundation for leadership expertise. Traditionally, Army leader development programs have focused almost exclusively on training in technical knowledge and skills. However, in recent years the Army has begun to recognize that leadership expertise includes more than technical competence. Leaders must also be interpersonally competent, possessing both an understanding of human behavior and the interpersonal skills to influence others effectively. This expanded conception of leadership expertise parallels the social

psychological research literature, which identifies task and interpersonal dimensions of leadership (see Bass, 1981, pp 97-110, for a review of this literature).

At the United States Military Academy, leadership development programs combine formal education with practical experience. The formal leadership course, taken by all cadets during their junior year, is explicitly designed to help cadets develop a schema that integrates their practical experience with academic knowledge about human behavior derived from the behavioral sciences. Through the use of military leadership case studies, cadets learn how to apply their knowledge toward the analysis and solution of human performance problems. Following this course, cadets apply their developing expertise during summer training and throughout their senior year while serving as leaders in the cadet chain of command.

In shaping our leadership development program, we relied on scholarly work from two separate but related lines of inquiry. The first is the emerging interest in cognitive processes among students of leadership. Recent leadership research indicates renewed interest in the leader that is reminiscent of early trait approaches. However, unlike the trait approaches, which emphasized

relatively stable dispositional attributes of the leader (see Bass, 1981, for a review), researchers are now interested in the leader's knowledge and information processing capabilities, which are presumably more amenable to development. Korman's (1974) call for the study of cognitive mechanisms mediating contingency relationships, Lord's (1976) study of problem representation mediating task structure and leader behavior, Fiedler's Cognitive Resources Model (Fiedler & Garcia, 1987) and Sternberg's work with managerial tacit knowledge (Sternberg & Wagner, 1986) illustrate this trend.

The second line of inquiry involves the research on professional expertise, both in terms of the structure of knowledge and its use in professional practice. Expert-novice differences in problem solving in a variety of domains have pointed to the relationship between the structure and organization of knowledge and thinking (Glaser, 1984; Chase & Simon, 1973; deGroot, 1966; Chi, Feltovich, & Glaser, 1981). Professional expertise, particularly in medical problem solving, has also attracted considerable interest. Simon (1986) argues for a similar focus in the study of managerial problem solving and Wagner & Sternberg (1985) suggest that

researchers look at how tacit knowledge is acquired and used in daily performance.

Drawing from these two areas of study, we hypothesize that expertise in influencing others, a critical dimension of leadership, can be developed in much the same way as expertise in other areas (e.g., medicine, chess, physics, law) is developed--through formal study and practical experience. This hypothesis provides the rationale for our program design. Furthermore, the program's academic portion focuses on the development of a formal knowledge structure about human behavior and its application in leadership situations. Thus, we emphasize the cognitive aspects of leadership practice, consistent with current research in leadership effectiveness. The more detailed description of our program that follows will highlight these features.

Within the Academy's leader development process, the core curriculum leadership course is sequenced between two significant opportunities to practice military leadership. During the summer prior to their junior year, cadets gain valuable leadership experience by serving as small unit leaders in the field Army. Through this internship cadets develop an experience base upon

which they will draw during their academic study of the leadership process. Following their junior year, cadets again have an opportunity to practice leadership as they develop and train the freshman and sophomore cadets during summer training. During this internship experience, senior cadets serve in leadership positions either in the cadet chain of command or as training committee team chiefs. Senior cadets assigned to Cadet Basic Training conduct a six-week indoctrination program for the entering freshman class, similar to Army Basic Training. Senior cadets assigned to Cadet Field Training conduct tactical and technical training in a wide range of military specialties for sophomore cadets. By way of comparison, Cadet Field Training fulfills the same function for our sophomore cadets as third year medical clerkships do for medical students--exposing them to the basic professional specialties. This sequence of practice-study-practice affords our cadets the opportunity to integrate theory and application while they are developing as Army leaders.

The academic leadership course teaches cadets to use behavioral science concepts and theories to (1) explain human behavior, (2) solve human performance problems, and (3) make decisions to enhance organizational performance.

These outcomes are built around an information-processing model of leadership. This model represents a cognitive framework that includes problem identification, data collection, diagnosis, decision making, and problem solving. The intent is to help cadets develop intellectual skills so that they will be able to put knowledge to work for them as leaders. We want our students to develop the ability to conceptualize their leadership experiences, to think hypothetically about the relationships among human performance variables, and to base influence attempts on a systematic analysis of the situation. Current thinking suggests that these intellectual skills are critical to success in both peace and war (Isenberg, 1985; Weick, 1985).

We have organized the relevant knowledge from psychology, sociology, and organizational behavior into a content model, which we call a Model of Organizational Leadership (MOL) (Associates, Department of Behavioral Sciences and Leadership, USMA, 1988). The MOL is a multilevel, open systems model representing classes of variables that can be used to understand organizational performance from individual, group, and organizational perspectives. Hence, the model represents a formal knowledge structure about human behavior.

Instruction relies on the use of case studies drawn from actual military leadership situations. During each lesson cadets use what they have learned to explain performance problems and select theoretically appropriate actions. As the course progresses, case studies become increasingly complex, requiring cadets to analyze situations from multiple perspectives within the MOL. Role plays assist cadets in translating theoretical solutions into actual behaviors. Through experiential exercises, cadets also develop skills in performance appraisal, counseling, communications, and stress management.

Course design and delivery orient on several educational goals. We want our cadets to be able to analyze organizational leadership situations from multiple perspectives in order to explain human performance in terms of the interaction of individual, group, and organizational variables. Guided by this goal, we teach our students to use the information-processing model presented in the course in a systematic fashion to explain performance and derive solutions to complex leadership problems involving multiple causes. Throughout the course we challenge our students to look for both direct and indirect causes of performance

problems. Since leadership involves social influence, we recognize that attribution processes play a critical role in the diagnosis of performance problems as a precursor to influence attempts. In this light, we have implicitly structured the course to increase our students' awareness of potential biases (such as the fundamental attributional error (Ross, 1977)) by encouraging them, as leaders, to look to situational as well as dispositional factors in explaining individual and group performance in organizations.

In working with this approach to leadership development, we recognized that the leadership literature provides few explanations for how expertise in social influence develops through either formal study or experience or both. In addition, the research literature offers few clues about how or to what extent leaders use formal academic knowledge about human behavior in the exercise of leadership.

This study represents the first step in a long-term research effort to investigate the relationship between a leader's knowledge of human behavior and his/her use of knowledge to influence others. Our ultimate goal is a deeper understanding of how expertise in influencing others develops so that we can better design academic and

experiential learning programs for our cadets. The study reported here is intentionally exploratory and descriptive. Because leadership problem situations are generally ill-structured (Ungson, Braunstein, & Hall, 1981), in contrast to the more structured problems used to study expertise in chess or physics, we chose to begin by studying the types of situations that cadets classify as leadership problems.

The study addresses two questions:

1. What situations do cadets identify as a leadership problem? Based on our course design, we hypothesized that cadets would identify problems involving the influence of others, to include subordinates, peers, and superordinates. We suspected that the majority of problems would involve the influence of subordinates. We also wanted to see if cadets identified situations involving reciprocal influence (where the leader both influences and is influenced by another) as a leadership problem.

2. What do cadets regard as the relevant causal features of the leadership problem situation, and how do they organize these features into a causal representation in order to structure an explanation of the problem? We hoped to find complex causal structures involving

interrelationships between a large number of features. Since our purpose in building a knowledge structure via the MOL is to teach our students to explain human performance from multiple levels of analysis, we were interested in the extent to which cadets reported causes from more than one level within the MOL for each problem situation. Finally, we wanted to see the relative proportion of internal and external attributions used to explain performance problems.

In addition to addressing these questions, we also wanted to develop a methodology for subsequent phases of the research project.

Method

Subjects

Senior cadets at the United States Military Academy participated in the study during the fall of 1986. We used a random sample of fifty-seven cadets, stratified by position within the chain of command and drawn from class rosters based on summer assignments. Five different summer assignment positions were included: (1) company commander, (2) platoon leader/platoon sergeant, (3) squad leader, (4) staff member, and (5) training committee team

chief. We contacted subjects by phone and asked them to participate voluntarily in an interview concerning their summer leadership experiences. All cadets who were contacted agreed to participate, however, only thirty-seven interviews could be scheduled within a reasonable time. Since all cadets in the sample were from the same year group (they were all first semester seniors), stratification made it possible to investigate problem identification by organizational level, with some degree of control over experience. (We recognize that we can not control for differences in the cadets' military and leadership experience prior to entering West Point.)

Interview Format and Data Collection

We used a semistructured interview protocol to gather the data. The interviewer read from a list of open-ended questions and recorded the respondent's comments in writing on the interview sheet. Two questions on the interview sheet are relevant to this study:

(1) What types of leadership problems did you find yourself dealing with during your summer detail?

(2) What did you find to be the cause or causes of these problems?

We did not ask subjects to reconstruct their thoughts while in the situation, since this information was probably not available (Ericsson & Simon, 1980). Rather, we asked them to share their current thoughts about the problem and its relevant features. Interviewers asked questions for amplification and clarification during the interview. Following the session, the interviewer reviewed the accuracy of the notes with the subject. Seven leadership course faculty members, trained specifically for this study in interviewing techniques, served as interviewers for the data collection. Data consisted of interviewer-recorded notes of the subject's responses to each question.

Data Analysis

Data analysis involved two steps. Initially, the first two authors read through the interview data looking for the types of problems identified by respondents. At first, we tried to organize the problem types in terms of course content; however, we found that the number of resultant categories soon became unmanageable. In sorting through the data, another pattern began to emerge that was similar to the tacit knowledge categories proposed by Wagner and Sternberg (1985). Specifically, respondents identified two types of problems, those that

involved the influence of others' actions in organizational settings and those that involved the leader's (respondent's) own actions or feelings. These categories seemed to be consistent with the areas of managerial tacit knowledge reported by Wagner and Sternberg, which they referred to as managing others and managing oneself. Following this logic, we chose to categorize problems reported by respondents as involving the influence of others (Lead-Others) or as involving leader self-management (Lead-Self). We further subdivided Lead-Other problems into influence of subordinates (Lead-Subord), peers (Lead-Peer), and superordinates (Lead-Boss). Problems involving more than one category were categorized as complex.

Seven members of the leadership faculty (two had previously served as interviewers) sorted problems into these categories. In all, eighty-nine problems were classified by at least one scorer. In order for a problem to be retained for further analysis, five of the seven scorers had to have made the same classification. We eliminated eleven problems, resulting in a final set of seventy-eight leadership problems.

Second, for each reported problem, three different faculty members diagrammed graphically the causal

features and their relationships. These diagrams represented the responses to the second interview question. Figure 1 illustrates two problem diagrams, one simple and one complex. For each problem diagram, problem features (causes) were classified as involving the other, the leader, or the context (situational or organizational factors). This analysis permitted us to look at the types of causal features used to structure the problem situation as well as the complexity (both number of features and number of interrelationships between features) of the problem space. Additionally, we were able to look for dispositional and situational attributions, and hence, to assess attributional biases.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Results

Leadership Problem Identification

Summary data for leadership problem types are presented in Table 1. As expected, over half of the problems involved the influence of others (59%). Within this category, the vast majority (42% of the total problems) related to the influence of subordinates.

Interestingly, 41% of the problems involved self-management, either alone (5% of the total) or combined with influencing others (36% of the total). This suggests that in over forty percent of the reported leadership problem situations the leader had to deal with self-management issues.

Insert Table 1 about here

Figure 2 offers a graphic summary of the leadership problem types by organizational position. For purposes of analysis, we combined data from cadets occupying both platoon leader and platoon sergeant roles into the Platoon category because these roles represent the same organizational level. We also combined data from company staff and regimental staff positions to form the Staff category because staff members at all levels perform similar types of duties. The single headed arrows in the diagrams represent problems involving unidirectional influence (Lead-Other) while the double headed arrows represent problems involving reciprocal influence (i.e., the combination of Lead-Other and Lead-Self). The numbers indicate the number of problems of that type.

Insert Figure 2 about here

Figure 2 permits us to see the variety of leadership problems faced by cadets in different summer assignments. Note, for example, that the company commanders in the sample only identified the influence of subordinates as leadership problems. In contrast, squad leaders reported a much wider variety of problems, with reciprocal influence problems going both up and down the organizational hierarchy. Staff and committee positions showed a tendency for lateral and upward influence problems over problems of leading subordinates, which is consistent with the nature of staff work. It appears from these data that different summer assignments offer, to some extent, very different kinds of leadership experiences. However, comparative conclusions are tentative, at best, in light of the differences in the number of respondents in each position category.

A qualitative analysis of the leadership problem types is summarized in Table 2. The complex problems involving both Lead-Other and Lead-Self are of most interest to us. In them, we see the leader as part of the problem situation where the self-management of

emotions interacts with the influence of others. For example, many of the squad leaders in Cadet Basic Training reported a tension between showing concern for their subordinates and maintaining the traditional pressure associated with the Fourth Class System. Respondents frequently reported this tension in counseling sessions, when the squad leader did not know whether to show concern or be firm. In these situations, respondents perceived that Lead-Self problems hampered Lead-Subord influence attempts. Having to deal with their own emotions made it difficult for them to influence others. Another self-management problem arose over the changes to the conduct of Cadet Basic Training imposed by regular Army officers in the chain of command. Respondents reported intense resistance to the changes that resulted in frustration and a lack of trust of officers. Cadets reported that these emotions often adversely affected leader-boss relationships. Respondents tended to view Lead-Boss problems as arising from this frustration and deflecting the cadet leader away from what they regarded as their primary focus--influencing subordinates.

Insert Table 2 about here

Leadership Problem Structures

Figure 3 summarizes the range of complexity in the problem diagrams. Complexity is a function of both the number of causal features in the structure and the relationships between features. A simple structure would involve one causal feature associated with one problem. For example, one company commander reported that his subordinates were not motivated to work hard because they did not think the task would be worthwhile (e.g., see the simple structure in Figure 1a). A complex structure, in contrast, contains many features with both unidirectional and multidirectional relationships among features (e.g.,see the complex structure in Figure 1b).

Insert Figure 3 about here

In all, the interview notes yielded seventy-one diagrams. Two aspects of the data account for the difference between the number of diagrams (71) and the number of problems (78). First, four problems had no reported causes associated with them. Second, one respondent reported four problems that were linked in a complex network, resulting in one diagram. The summary

shown in Figure 3 suggests that the problem structures reported by respondents generally lacked complexity, with 66% involving either one causal feature or multiple but unrelated features. It is, however, interesting to note that 79% of the diagrams contained at least two causal features, suggesting some tendency to move beyond unitary cause-effect problem structures.

Insert Table 3 about here

In order to study attributional processes, we also analyzed the types of features reported by our subjects. For each problem type, Table 3 summarizes the categories of problem features (something about the Other, something about the Leader, something about the Context, or any combination of these). Forty-five percent of the problem diagrams had features of a single type, with 28% of the total representing something about the other and 13% something about the context. Fifty-five percent of the diagrams contained features from two or more categories. Other x Context accounted for 30% of the total. In all, 72% of the problem diagrams contained causal features that included Other, while only 29% contained causal features that referred to the leader. For Lead-Other

problems, 41% of the diagrams contained features attributing the cause of the problem to the Other, while only 13% of the diagrams attributed the cause solely to the context. Just 8% of the problem diagrams contained the leader as a causal feature. The four Lead-Self problems included context and leader x context features. Problems classified as complex (Lead-Other + Lead-Self) possessed a wider range of problem features. Taken together, these results suggest the presence of attributional biases in attributing causality to performance problems. Even though 41% of the problems included the leader (from Table 1), the leader seldom perceived himself/herself as the cause of the problem. Rather, the majority of the features in the problem structures represented dispositional attributes of the other.

Dispositional features attributed to others included: ability, perception of requirements, personality, past experiences, desire, attitude, effort, and maturity. The vast majority of the contextual features involved organizational variables, including: policies, requirements, resources, organizational structure, and culture. Group factors, such as role expectations and peer pressure, accounted for a

substantially smaller portion of contextual features. Problem features associated with the leader included: ability, attitude, personal style, confidence, and experience.

Discussion

We undertook this exploratory study to learn more about the types of situations cadets identify as a leadership problem. We also wanted to investigate how cadets organized the perceived causal features of the situation in order to explain each problem. Our discussion will be organized around these two research questions.

Problem Identification

It is interesting to note that all of the problems reported by respondents involve human performance (e.g., motivation, workgroup relations). Not once did respondents report a technical problem requiring the leader's specific task competence (e.g., scheduling logistical support for training, organizing a tactical position). Several explanations are plausible. First, interviewers may not have recorded these kinds of problem situations. This is unlikely in light of the training

provided to interviewers and their instructions to record as accurately as possible the respondent's comments. Second, demand characteristics in the interview situation may have led respondents to report the kinds of problems they thought we wanted to hear. In order to minimize demand characteristics, we assigned interviewers who had no previous contact with the respondents. Nonetheless, interviewers did mention that they were members of the leadership faculty. However, we intentionally structured the first question to focus on the cadets' summer leadership experiences and to shift the attention away from the leadership course. Third, it may be that the summer leadership experiences are so structured that cadets simply do not face problems requiring technical expertise. Our knowledge of the summer training program suggests that, in general, this is not the case, although technical requirements probably do vary by organizational position. Finally, it could be that cadets view leadership problems as those involving the human dimensions of organizational performance, rather than the technical aspects. Given their limited military expertise and experience, it may well be that they equate leadership with the influence of others. Further research should look for differences in problem

identification across levels of experience in the military (e.g., regular Army officers and noncommissioned officers).

As expected, Lead-Other problems emerged as the most common type of leadership problem. This is not surprising in light of the case studies that we use in the course. Case studies tend to emphasize the influence of subordinates in organizational situations more than the influence of peers or superordinates. These results suggest that if we want our students to consider influence of peers and superordinates as part of the organizational leadership process, we need to include more case studies that illustrate this point in our instruction.

The substantial proportion of Lead-Self problems (41%), both independently and in combination with Lead-Others, is extremely interesting. This result suggests to us that many of the leadership problems identified by the respondents involved the reciprocal influence between the leader and others. Anyone who has ever been in a leadership position knows the reciprocal nature of the leadership process; the leader influences and is influenced by others. Clearly, many of the respondents experienced this phenomenon; they were not dispassionate

observers, but rather active participants in a social exchange process.

Looking at the types of problems identified by cadets in different leadership positions suggests that different assignments may result in qualitatively different types of developmental experiences. However, as we stated earlier, unequal sample sizes make this conclusion exceedingly tentative. We must gather more data before we can be confident in this conclusion.

Problem Representation

The results suggest a general lack of complexity in the causal structures used to represent the explanation of each problem. That is, very few causal features were associated with each problem (66% reported either single cause or multiple but unrelated causes). At this point, we can only speculate about the explanation of these results. It may be that we failed to realize our educational goal of teaching cadets to see complex causal patterns in accounting for performance problems. If this is true, then this finding suggests we look at improving teaching strategies if our students are to achieve this goal. Another explanation may be that in practice, leaders do not have the time and the memory capacity to look for and remember all of the features of a

performance problem situation. They may take cognitive shortcuts in order to enhance speed and efficiency. Hence, our respondents may not have attended to and/or remembered all of the features of the problem situations. Additionally, a number of aspects of the study design may account for this finding. We conducted the interviews several weeks after the completion of summer training. Hence, respondents may not have remembered all the causal features of the particular problem situation. In most cases the respondents also took some action in the situation. Therefore, their memory of the causes may have been influenced by their memory of the consequences of their actions in the situation. Alternatively, it may well be that respondents only reported the relatively simple problems that they faced during their summer assignments and consequently there were relatively few causal features in the problem situations to begin with. In subsequent research we will explore these rival explanations in greater detail.

The presence of attributional biasing effects in the problem structures is consistent with the lack of complexity. Although these biasing tendencies often lead to errors in social judgment, they certainly simplify the observer's task of inferring causality. In practice, it

appears that the tendency to attend to dispositional factors in attributing causality to another's performance overrides the formal knowledge structure presented in the course, which emphasizes social and contextual as well as dispositional causes of performance. As an alternative explanation, the cadet performance appraisal system, which emphasizes dispositional attributes of leadership, may have an indirect and generalized affect on how cadets view performance. This finding clearly warrants further study. Is it possible to overcome attributional biases through education? Several authors report research on training programs that overcome attributional biases in performance appraisal (Latham, Cummings, and Mitchell, 1981). Our task is to incorporate the findings of these studies into our course design and delivery in order to achieve our educational goals.

Implications

Although this study was intentionally exploratory, several findings are robust enough to suggest implications for program modifications at this time. The large proportion of Lead-Self in combination with Lead-Other problems identified by respondents points us to an examination of our case studies and of the teaching strategies used to achieve our educational goals. We

must look for ways to place the student in the role of leader in the midst of complex leadership situations involving performance problems, rather than have them dispassionately observe another's attempts at leadership. This finding led us to review our case studies. We noticed a tendency toward the third person once we moved to the group and organizational levels of analysis in presenting the Model of Organizational Leadership. Yet conclusions drawn from this study indicate a need for more first person cases, where the student is required to project himself/herself into the leader's role. A complementary strategy is to increase the use of role play in the classroom so that the student will experience directly the reciprocity of social influence between the leader and others. As a long-term solution, we may consider structural changes to the Academy's leader development program so that academic learning and internship experiences are more closely coordinated, so that experiential learning becomes an extension of academic learning.

We are also concerned that we have not yet helped our students to overcome attributional biases in inferring the causes of another's actions. As we mentioned earlier, further research will be directed at

explaining this finding. For now, we are making attributional errors explicit in the course by emphasizing potential biasing factors when presenting both the content and process models during the semester.

A final purpose of the study was to develop a methodology for the follow-on phases of our research project. In this regard, we learned a great deal. Subsequent studies will include comparison groups to permit inferences about the program's effectiveness and about the relationship between formal and tacit knowledge in the practice of leadership. The next phase of the project will involve two studies, a pre-post design with control group to evaluate course objectives and a expert-novice design to look more closely at leadership problem solving across a range of expertise. We plan to draw upon the problems identified in this study to construct situations for use in these follow-on studies in order to avoid the pitfalls of retrospective interviews. To overcome potential errors in recording data, we will use audio tape and transcribe the responses. Finally, individual differences in complexity of problem structures may suggest intellectual development patterns similar to those reported by Perry (1970) for college

students, which may prove fruitful to research in later studies.

We have much to learn about how leadership abilities develop as a result of formal and informal learning. The expansion of information processing research to this domain offers exciting possibilities to increase our understanding of how leadership expertise develops, with the goal of improving our leadership development programs.

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Table 1

Leadership Problem Types by Organizational Position

	Position					
Type	Company	Platoon	Squad	Staff	Committee	Total
Lead-Other	6	8	12	8	12	46 (59%)
Subord	6	8	12	1	6	33
Peer	0	0	0	4	3	7
Boss	0	0	0	3	3	6
Lead-Self	0	0	4	0	0	4 (5%)
Self + Other	0	4	19	1	4	28 (36%)
Subord	0	1	9	0	0	10
Peer	0	1	2	0	2	5
Boss	0	1	7	0	0	8
Complex	0	1	1	1	2	5

Table 2

Leadership Problems

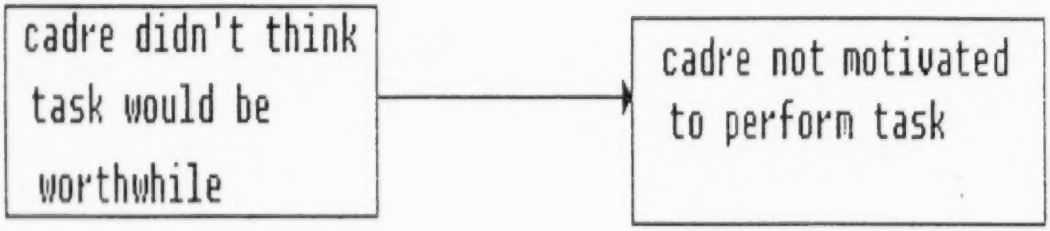
Problems	Examples
Lead-Other	
Subord	motivation of chain of command and trainees workgroup relationships maintain performance standards consistency of performance
Peer	working with classmates when leader lacked formal authority or position power
Boss	gain and maintain support of boss conflicts with officers and senior cadets minimize disruptions by the boss
Lead-Self	role strain lack of confidence in skills frustration and resistance to change
Lead-Other + Lead Self	
Subord	internal conflict between concern for subordinate development and norms concerning treatment of new cadets affected influence attempts with new cadets (particularly evident in counseling) diagnosing ability vs motivation problems and adapting actions accordingly
Peer	peer pressure to conform to norms when leader did not agree with norms
Boss	micro-management by officers restricted leader's influence attempts and relationship with superordinates

Table 3

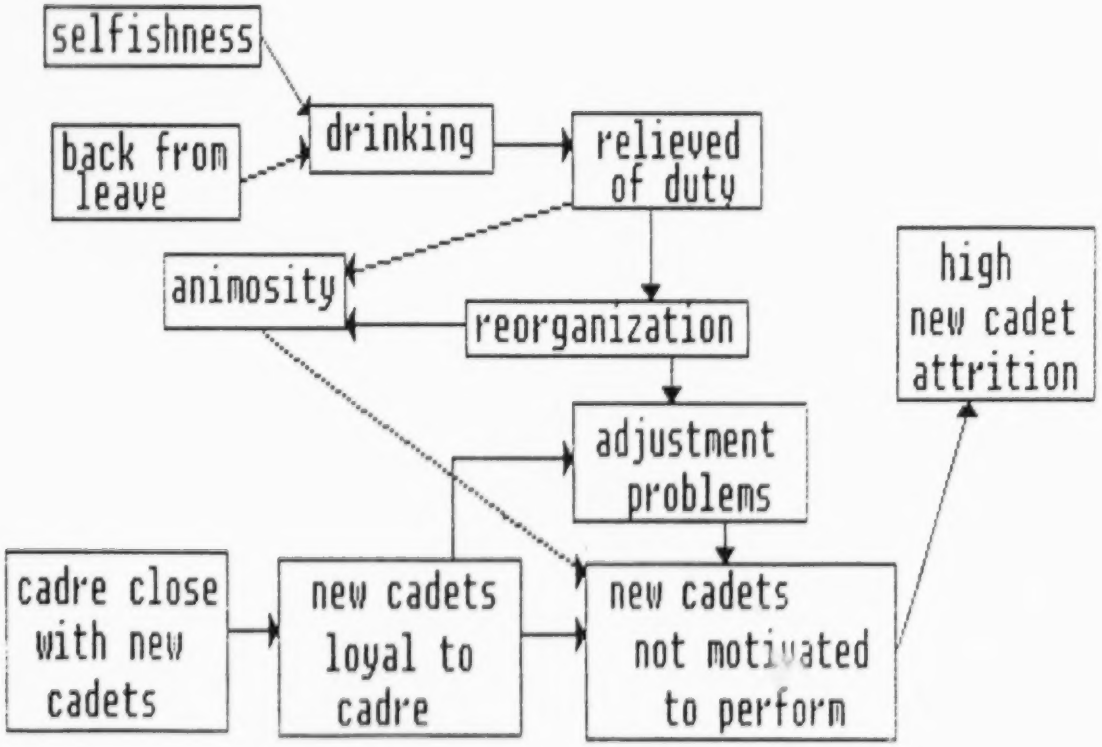
Causal Attributions by Problem Type

	Problem Type			
Cause	Lead-Other	Lead-Self	Self + Other	Total / %
Other	16	0	4	20 / 28%
Leader	0	0	3	3 / 4%
Context	5	1	3	9 / 13%
Other + Context	15	0	6	21 / 30%
Leader + Context	0	3	5	8 / 11%
Other + Leader	1	0	4	5 / 7%
Other + Leader + Context	2	0	3	5 / 7%
Total	39	4	28	71

Figure 1: Sample Problem Diagrams



1a. SIMPLE



1b. COMPLEX

Figure 2: Leadership Problems by Position

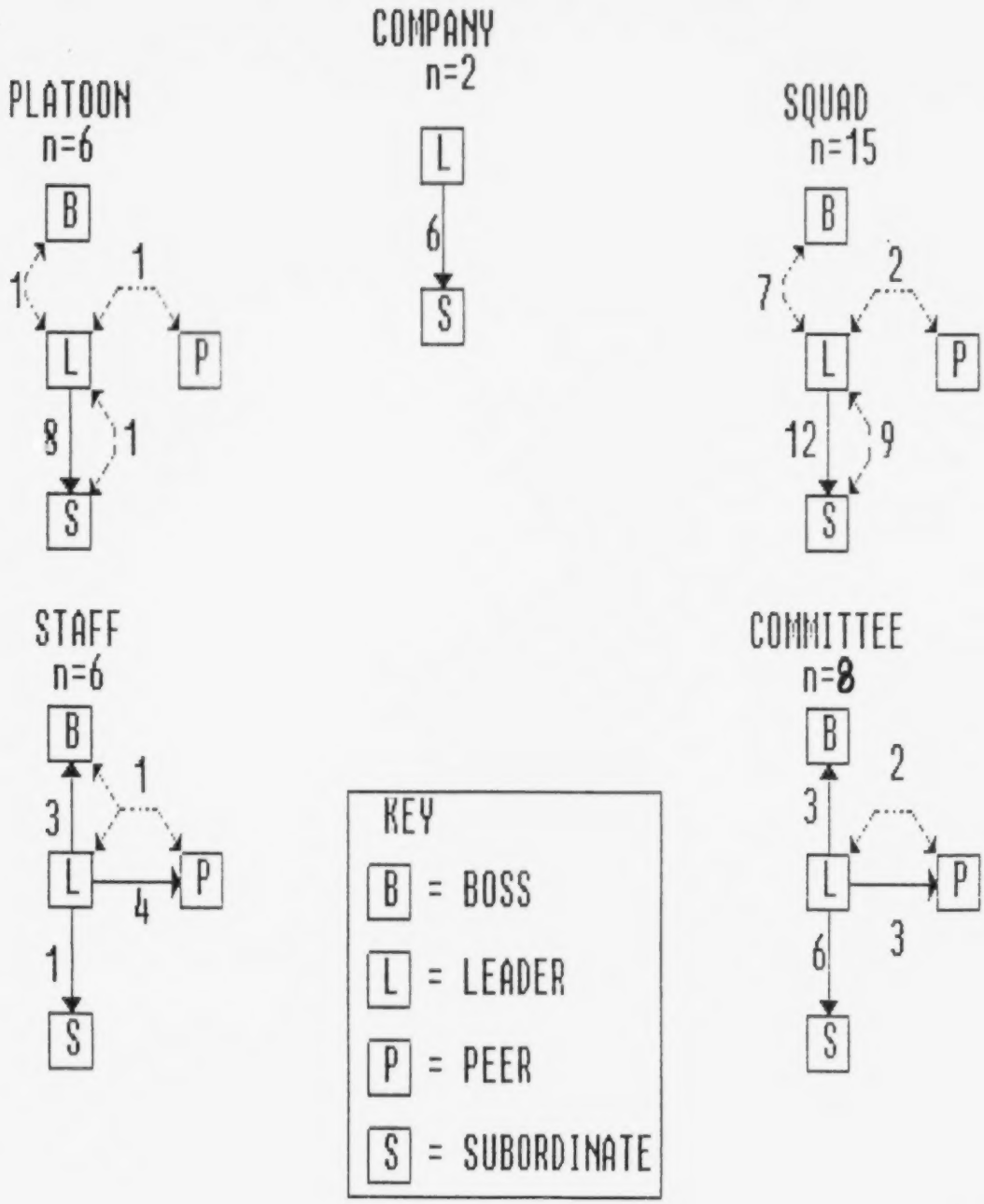


Figure 3: Problem Complexity